

Tiger Shark— A scalable file system for multimedia

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Tiger Shark is a scalable, parallel file system designed to support interactive multimedia applications, particularly large-scale ones such as interactive television (ITV). Tiger Shark runs under the IBM AIX® operating system, on machines ranging from RS/6000™ desktop workstations to the SP2® parallel supercomputer. In addition to supporting continuous-time data, Tiger Shark provides scalability, high availability, and on-line system management, all of which are crucial in large-scale video servers. These latter features also enable Tiger Shark to support nonmultimedia uses, such as scientific computing, data mining, digital library, and scalable network file servers. Tiger Shark has been employed in a number of customer ITV trials. On the basis of experience obtained from these trials, Tiger Shark has recently been released in several IBM video-server products. This paper describes the architecture and implementation of Tiger Shark, discusses the experience gained from trials, and compares Tiger Shark to other scalable video servers.

Introduction

To date, most multimedia application programs run on stand-alone personal computers, with digitized video and audio coming from local hard disks and CD-ROMs.

Increasingly, there has been a demand for file servers for multimedia data. The reasons for this include those that motivate the use of file servers for conventional data: sharing, security, and centralized administration.

It is difficult for a conventional file server to handle multimedia data. When a conventional file server becomes overloaded, all users experience lower throughput and greater response time. For multimedia, the file server must deliver digitized video and/or audio data at a rate that allows it to be presented to the user in a smooth, continuous stream (this is called continuous-time, or *isochronous*, presentation). Any nontrivial delay by the server results in *stream starvation*, which appears to the user as an annoying interruption in the presentation. Stream starvation can be avoided by buffering data and/or underloading the file server, but either of these alternatives can increase cost prohibitively. A video server differs from a conventional file server by incorporating an *admission control* mechanism to prevent overloading and a *scheduling* mechanism to ensure that data is supplied in a continuous manner.

In large-scale multimedia applications, like video on demand (VOD), interactive television (ITV)¹, and browsers for the World Wide Web, the difficulty of providing continuous-time presentation is exacerbated by the sheer magnitude of the systems. A single video stream

¹ Video on demand includes relatively noninteractive applications such as playback of movies. Interactive television includes applications such as home shopping, education, and training, in which the user interacts with the system.

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requires between 1.5 and 6 Mb/s of bandwidth.² At the 6 Mb/s typically required for ITV, even the 100-stream servers that have been deployed in a number of small-scale ITV trials must support a throughput of 75 MB/s, yet most conventional network file servers are limited to well under 10 MB/s. A 1000-stream server, which is the minimum considered for production ITV systems, requires at least a 19-node SP2³ system, with all nodes accessing the same video data simultaneously, making the need for scalability obvious.

The need for high availability and manageability in a large-scale VOD or ITV server is obvious as well. Failure of a 1000-stream ITV system presenting two-hour movies at \$5 each costs \$2500 an hour. Failure of a digital video-broadcast server can put a cable TV system, broadcast station, or broadcast network off the air. Ordinary component failures must not take down the server or even unduly interrupt viewers, and it must be possible to repair, service, and reconfigure the server while it remains operational.

The remainder of this paper discusses the architecture of the Tiger Shark file system, with emphasis on the features that allow it to function as a video server, describes its use in a variety of IBM ITV trials and video-server products, and concludes by discussing the lessons learned to date and possible future directions.

The Tiger Shark file system

Broadly speaking, a video server consists of three components: a *control* component that responds to client requests, a *communication* component that moves data through the network from the server to the client, and a *file-system* component that manages the storage and retrieval of data from disk. To enable the use of the RS/6000* and SP2 computers as video servers, we developed the Tiger Shark file system, which incorporates the following features that permit its use in a video server:

- Tiger Shark is designed to handle isochronous data by making use of the real-time features of the AIX* operating system and by scheduling disk I/O to ensure that data is read and written on time.
- Tiger Shark provides a high degree of scalability, both in the amount of data it can store and the data throughput (bandwidth) it supports.
- Tiger Shark is designed for high availability. When properly configured, it remains operational in the face of any single disk or node failure.
- Tiger Shark is designed to simplify or eliminate routine system-management tasks. Automatic load balancing

across disks is inherent in the design. All operator-initiated management functions can be performed while the system remains operational.

In addition to supporting video, Tiger Shark contains the following features that make it suitable as a general-purpose parallel file system:

- Tiger Shark presents a POSIX**-compliant [1] programming interface; thus, application programs can use it with few, if any, modifications.
- Tiger Shark provides high-speed access to files from a single application or from any number of applications running in parallel.
- Tiger Shark is fully cache-coherent across nodes in the SP2 system. Cache coherence is implemented by means of a byte-range locking mechanism that allows parallel access to nonoverlapping regions of a file, with little or no communication overhead.

In summary, Tiger Shark enables the RS/6000 and the SP2 to efficiently satisfy the data-access demands of both multimedia and parallel computing.

Tiger Shark overview

Tiger Shark runs on a cluster of processors (*file-system nodes*) that share a pool of disks. File-system nodes can access the disks directly over a switching network or via other processors (*storage nodes*) to which the disks are physically attached. A single node can serve as both a file-system node and a storage node, but for simplicity, our discussion treats the two types of nodes as if they were distinct. Each file-system node can read from and write to all of the disks. A single RS/6000 processor can be considered to be a single-node cluster. In the SP2 system, Tiger Shark file-system nodes use a software component called Virtual Shared Disk (VSD) [2] to send disk block-read and block-write requests to storage nodes over the high-speed switch. This is illustrated in **Figure 1**.

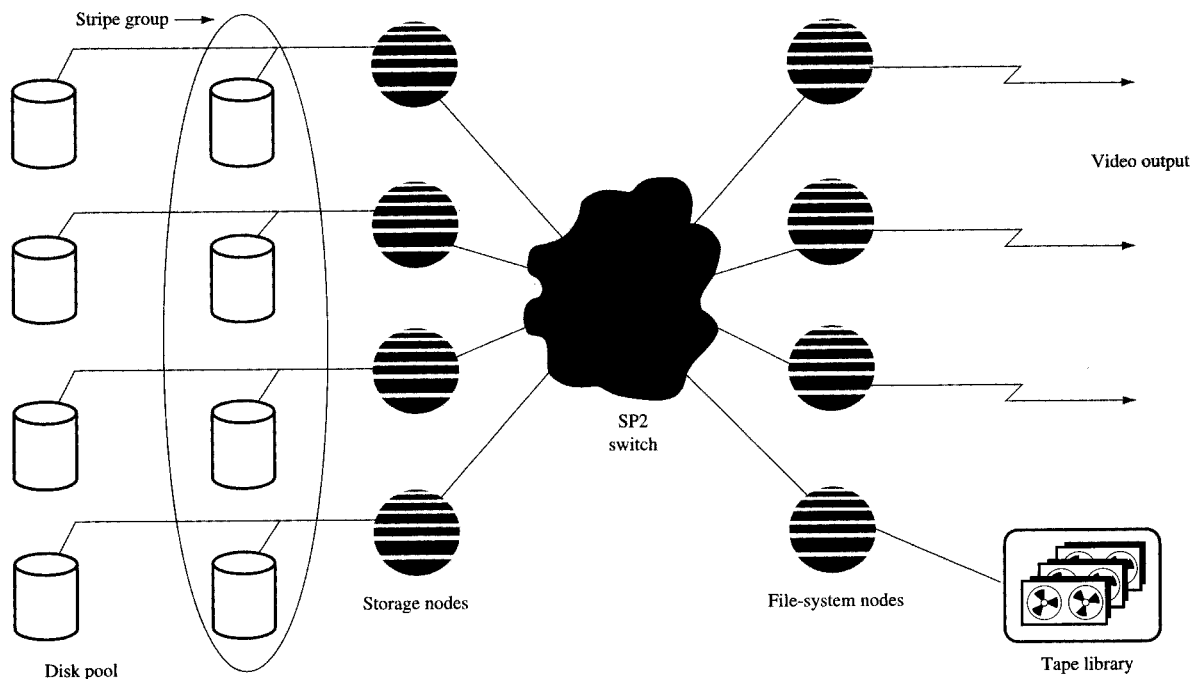
Tiger Shark supports multiple, separately mountable file systems⁴. In Tiger Shark, each mountable file system is striped across a collection of disks called a *stripe group* and can be accessed in parallel from all file-system nodes. Tiger Shark presents a single-system image to its clients—programs on separate file-system nodes see a globally consistent view of each mounted file system.

From Tiger Shark's point of view, a video-server component that streams video to external users, such as an ATM stream driver or the Network File System** daemon, is simply an application program running on file-system nodes. Other programs can run simultaneously and

² Mb = megabits, MB = megabytes, Kb = kilobits, KB = kilobytes.

³ The Microchannel* on each SP2* node, which has a hardware throughput limit of 40 MB/s, determines the number of nodes.

⁴ The operating system literature uses the term "file system" to refer to both the software that manages file data and the structure of this data on disk. This paper attempts to make the context sufficient to disambiguate these two meanings.



Tiger Shark architecture for an SP2 system.

share data with video-server components. For example, a tape-archive manager running on one file-system node can begin retrieving a movie from a tape library and, slightly later, an ATM stream driver on another node can start streaming the movie to a viewer.

Tiger Shark makes files available through the AIX virtual file system [3] interface, which makes Tiger Shark compatible with the AIX native file system. Programs do not have to be modified to use Tiger Shark unless they make use of the functions that control its multimedia features.

Tiger Shark architecture

Tiger Shark has a number of architectural elements that allow it to meet its design goals. Following is a brief discussion of the major ones.

Isochronous file access Tiger Shark uses real-time features of the AIX operating system [4] to prevent the kernel and other programs from interfering with isochronous data delivery. It also implements real-time disk scheduling to execute disk I/O operations in the proper order for achieving an uninterrupted flow of data to clients. Tiger Shark uses deadline scheduling (as

opposed to conventional scan or elevator algorithms [5]) to implement both recording and playback of files with arbitrary video rates.

Large disk blocks To efficiently support multimedia and supercomputing, a file system must maximize throughput from the available disks. Since disk throughput is strongly related to disk block size, Tiger Shark uses a large disk block, 256 KB being the default. Conventional file systems optimize to reduce space rather than to increase throughput, by using small disk blocks; for example, the AIX native file system uses 4KB blocks. Since Tiger Shark can store several small files (or partial blocks at the end of large files) together in a single large block, its disk-space utilization is comparable to that of a conventional, small-block file system.

Wide striping In both supercomputing and multimedia, much or all file-system activity is often directed at a single file. For example, many or all clients of a VOD system may be viewing the same "blockbuster" movie simultaneously the first night it becomes available. For the 1000-stream server mentioned in a previous example, the entire 750MB/s server throughput may be used for the

Table 1 Example of file-system block replication with round-robin striping. The entry is the number of the disk on which the block is written. The striping order is 1-2-3-4.

Replica number	Block number			
	0	1	2	3
1	3	4	1	2
2	4	1	2	3
3	1	2	3	4

single file containing this movie. This is higher than the throughput of an individual disk (5–10 MB/s) or even of an individual storage node in the SP2 (40 MB/s). Achieving higher throughput than that of a disk or node from a single file requires *striping* it across multiple disks and storage nodes, so that successive blocks of the file go on different disks and nodes. Each Tiger Shark file system can be striped across as many as 512 disks. Since each file is striped evenly across all disks in a stripe group, the disk load is inherently balanced, regardless of file-access skew (the unevenness of demand for different files).

Fault-tolerance As the number of disks and nodes in the system increases, so does the probability of component failures. If hardware RAID (e.g., a disk such as that described in [6]) is available, Tiger Shark can use it as a means of protecting disk data. However, hardware RAID subsystems can be more than twice as expensive per byte as conventional disks, RAID controllers are often performance bottlenecks, and, for large systems, the probability of an entire RAID subsystem failing is significant. As an alternative to RAID, Tiger Shark uses block-level replication of both file data and metadata (the bookkeeping information that keeps track of the location of files on disk). Tiger Shark also recovers from file-system-node failures, so if a node crashes in the process of modifying the file system (e.g., while recording or while loading content from tape), the file system will be restored to a consistent state.

On-line system management Tiger Shark responds to commands from the AIX operating system to automatically recover and reconfigure in response to the failure or repair of hardware components. The system remains operational while reconfiguration occurs. System-administration commands (creating and deleting file systems, adding and removing disks from file systems, etc.) are also executed while the system is operational. Files can be reorganized (e.g., restriped onto newly added disks) on-line, with the reorganization taking place in the background.

File-system metadata

Tiger Shark file-system metadata (data structures on disk) roughly correspond to those of a conventional UNIX** file system [7] but have been substantially redesigned to work well in a cluster.

The root data structure of a file system is the *stripe-group descriptor*, analogous to the UNIX superblock. It contains overall file-system attributes, pointers to other data structures (for example, the inode and allocation map files described below), and information about each disk in the stripe group. The stripe-group descriptor is replicated on each disk of the stripe group and is read and written by the use of a quorum algorithm [8], which makes the operations of reading and updating the stripe-group descriptor tolerant of disk and node crashes. Because reading and writing the stripe-group descriptor is done infrequently, the overhead of the quorum algorithm is not significant.

Each disk in a stripe group can be a data disk (which holds only file data), a metadata disk (which holds only metadata), or both. This allows the use of disks with different physical characteristics for data and metadata.

File-system blocks in Tiger Shark (both data and metadata) can be replicated. Each disk address contained in file-system metadata is an array, with one element per replica. The disk information in the stripe-group descriptor contains system-topology information that allows Tiger Shark to allocate block replicas on disks with no common failure point. The degree of replication can be different for each object. A stripe group can have replicated metadata but unreplicated files, or it can have different levels of replication for different files; for example, only popular movies might be replicated. This allows making tradeoffs between fault-tolerance and system cost.

Each data file is striped across all of the data disks in the stripe group. Metadata is similarly striped across all of the metadata disks in the stripe group. Tiger Shark supports two striping policies: round robin and balanced random. For round-robin striping, a single striping order is used for all files. All replicas of the first block of a file are written to randomly chosen disks, subject to the constraint that they have no common failure point. Successive blocks of each replica are written to data disks chosen according to the striping order, as illustrated in **Table 1**. For balanced random striping (**Table 2**), a separate, randomly generated striping order is used for each k blocks of the file, where k is the number of data disks ($k = 4$ in **Table 2**). Again, replicas of a single block are offset by a random amount within this order. Round robin gives higher throughput without missed deadlines, but files in a balanced random striping system can be restriped (e.g., when disks are added to the stripe group) by moving only $1/k$ th of their blocks.

Because of the random position of the starting point in the striping order from one replica of a block to the next, the replicas of each block will be more or less evenly distributed across the disks in a stripe group. After the failure of one disk, the load on the other $k - 1$ disks in its stripe group increases by only $1/k$ th. Contrast this to mirroring, in which the entire load of a failed disk must be borne by its mirror. Thus, Tiger Shark can operate its disks at $(k - 1)/k$ of their maximum throughput and still not have them overload after a failure, as opposed to the limit of $1/2$ that would be the case with mirroring.

Tiger Shark can use logical disks (for example, AIX logical volumes) interchangeably with physical disks. Most hardware RAID subsystems make a parity group, or *rank*, of physical disks appear to the operating system as a single logical disk. In such a configuration, the RAID subsystem stripes individual file blocks across the physical disks in a parity group, and Tiger Shark stripes successive file blocks across successive RAID parity groups according to the striping order. Tiger Shark optimizes performance for different RAID subsystems by proper choice of the size and alignment of their data blocks. For example, the IBM RAIDiant system [6] performs best for 256KB reads and writes aligned on 256KB boundaries, which the RAIDiant executes as 64KB operations in parallel on each disk in the parity group.

As in UNIX, each file consists of a number of data blocks, and has associated with it an *inode* and possibly one or more *indirect blocks*. The inode is a fixed-sized data structure that contains the file size, creation and modification times, access-control information, and pointers to the file's data blocks. If it is too small to contain pointers to all data blocks, the inode instead contains pointers to *indirect blocks*, which in turn point to the data blocks.

The inodes of all files in a stripe group are stored in a special file called the *inode file*. Each inode is referred to by its *inode number*, which is its ordinal position in the inode file. The stripe-group descriptor contains a pointer to the first block of the inode file; the first inode in the file (inode 0) is that of the inode file.

Another special file, the allocation-map file, contains the allocated/unallocated state of disk space in the stripe group. File-system blocks are subdivided into 32 equal-sized *fragments* (fractional blocks); the allocation map contains the state of each fragment of every block in the stripe group. Fragments are used to efficiently store the following together in a single file-system block: multiple metadata blocks, small files, or partial blocks at the end of large files. The allocation map is divided into n segments, each of which describes $1/n$ th of the space on each disk in the stripe group. The segmented allocation map allows n separate nodes to allocate disk space simultaneously without contention. The number of

Table 2 File-system block replication with balanced random striping. The entry is the number of the disk on which the block is written. The striping orders are 3-1-4-2 and 1-3-4-2.

Replica number	Order number 1							
	Order number 2							
	Block number							
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	3	1	4	2	1	3	4	2
2	4	2	3	1	2	1	3	4
3	1	4	2	3	3	4	2	1

segments n is specified when the file system is created, according to the number of nodes expected to be writing at the same time.

Each stripe group also contains a number of log files. Each node has its own log file, in which it maintains its recovery log. Recovery logging is discussed below.

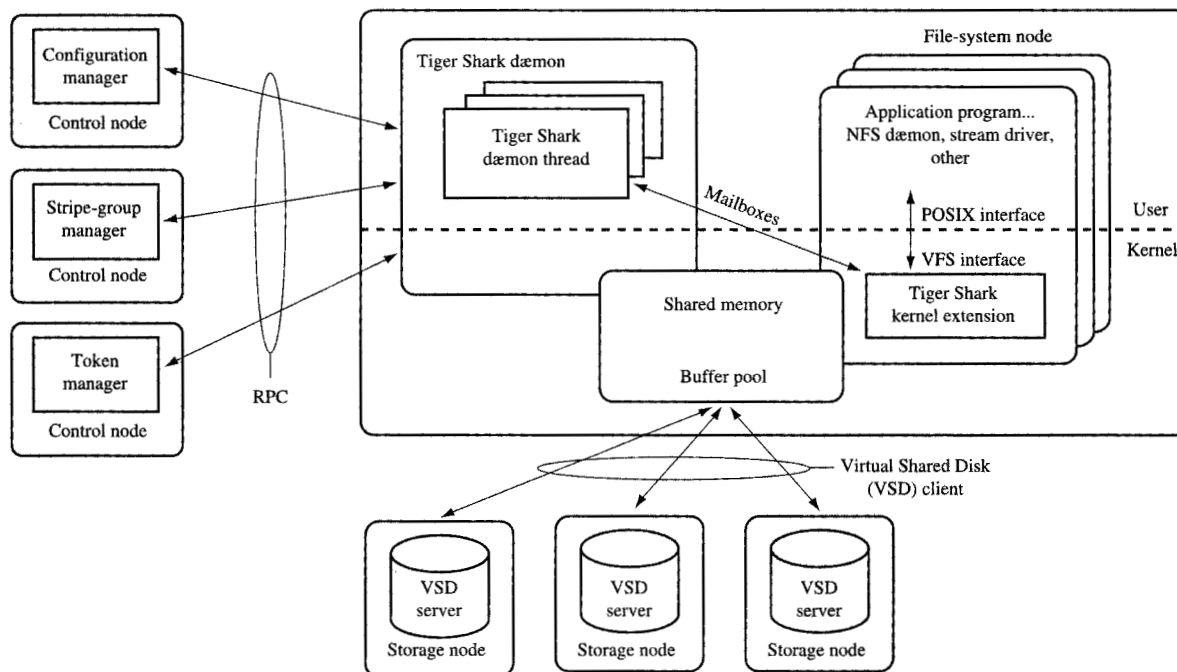
Directories, which associate human-readable file names with inode numbers, are also stored in files. Directories are structured as extendible hash tables [9] rather than as the more familiar linear list or B-tree structures. Extendible hashing allows effectively uniform lookup time, regardless of the number of files in a directory. Each hash bucket is stored in an 8KB block in the directory file. When a hash bucket overflows, the hash table is extended and the full bucket is split into two partially full buckets stored in separate 8KB blocks.

Software structure

Figure 2 illustrates the Tiger Shark software structure. Tiger Shark is implemented as a multithreaded daemon process (labeled "Tiger Shark daemon" in the figure) and a dynamically loaded kernel extension. The kernel extension implements the virtual file system (VFS) functions. The application program calls Tiger Shark through the standard file-system interface (open, close, read, write, etc.). The AIX kernel routes each call to the corresponding VFS function in the kernel extension.

Tiger Shark implements two communication mechanisms: a highly efficient mailbox mechanism for communication between the kernel extension and the daemon, and a set of remote procedure call (RPC) interfaces for the daemons to communicate among themselves.

Tiger Shark uses memory shared between the daemon and kernel extension to store its internal data structures, buffered file data, and buffered metadata. The kernel extension can obtain locks from AIX on objects in shared memory and can examine or modify them. Simple VFS operations (such as reads and writes of buffered data or directory lookups in cached directory files) are performed



Tiger Shark software structure.

in the kernel extension. The kernel extension sends mailbox messages to the daemon to perform more complicated operations, particularly those that require I/O. For example, if a program issues sequential 4KB read operations, the kernel extension sends a read message to the daemon for each 256KB data block to be read (i.e., one message for every 64 read calls) and performs the other reads itself from buffered data in shared memory. For real-time playback, Tiger Shark attempts to prefetch data, so that a program reading at the playback rate will never be blocked on a read call.

The RPC interfaces are implemented by means of TCP sockets. When the Tiger Shark daemon receives an RPC, a daemon thread is dispatched to perform the requested operation. Two of these RPC interfaces, the *configuration manager* and the *stripe-group manager* interfaces, are discussed here.

The configuration manager keeps track of what stripe groups are mounted and chooses the stripe-group manager for each active stripe group. One of the file-system nodes is elected by the other nodes to become the configuration manager when the system starts up and, thereafter, whenever the previous configuration manager terminates. The stripe-group manager maintains the list of nodes that

have the stripe group mounted (more accurately, the file system contained in the stripe group), processes mount requests, and allocates log files to nodes. System-management commands that affect the stripe group (e.g., adding or removing a disk, restriping) can be initiated on any node but are performed by the stripe-group manager. The stripe-group manager also manages other global state operations, e.g., changes to user-disk-space quotas and assignment of allocation segments to nodes. When a file-system node mounts a file system, it sends an RPC to the configuration manager to request the identity of the proper stripe-group manager. If no stripe-group manager exists, the configuration manager appoints the requesting node as stripe-group manager. If a stripe-group manager fails, the configuration manager chooses another node as its successor.

Tiger Shark is a general-purpose file system that allows any number of nodes to read and write files simultaneously while giving all nodes a coherent view of the file system. Since file-system nodes buffer (or cache) data to improve performance, nodes must be informed when other nodes perform operations that affect their cached data. Tiger Shark uses a modified version of the token manager in the Calypso file system [10] for

distributed locking. Buffer-pool-coherency locking is functionally distinct from POSIX (*fcntl*) locking, although the latter is also implemented via the token manager.

In common with many modern file systems, Tiger Shark implements recovery by means of *journaling*, or write-ahead logging [11]. Operations that modify metadata (with the exceptions noted below) are logged, and the log records are written to disk before the modified metadata is written. Within a stripe group, each node has a separate log file, which is replicated. After a node failure, the stripe-group manager reads the failed node's log file, applies the changes described in its log records, and then instructs the token manager to release any tokens that might have been held by the failed node. This recovery processing requires of the order of seconds. In the interest of performance, updates to inodes and indirect blocks are not logged. Instead, Tiger Shark observes the following order of operations when writing to a file:

- Data blocks and log records describing allocations of new data and/or indirect blocks are written.
- Indirect blocks are written.
- The inode itself is written.

This ordering prevents file metadata from pointing to unallocated or uninitialized data blocks when a file is being written. Similarly, a special ordering is required when a file is truncated or deleted:

- A list of all blocks to be deallocated is built in memory.
- The modified inode and/or indirect blocks that used to refer to the deallocated disk block are written.
- The blocks in the aforementioned list are deallocated.

This protocol ensures that a disk block is never deallocated as long as a reference to it exists on disk. When a file is deleted, before the inode and indirect blocks are traversed to build the deferred deallocation list, the file's inode is updated to show that it has been deleted.

The write ordering described above maintains metadata consistency after file-system node failures, with less I/O than journaling, but a node crash can result in a limited number of unused blocks being marked as allocated in the allocation map. To reclaim this space, an on-line version of the familiar UNIX *fsck* command was implemented to traverse file-system metadata and reclaim any allocated but unused blocks. This on-line *fsck*, done in the background while the system is running, does not interfere with real-time I/O. The more familiar off-line *fsck* is also used in rare failure situations, such as the loss of a log file or file-system corruption due to a software bug. Reloading a multi-terabyte file system from tape takes so long that even these rare failures must be guarded against. The Tiger Shark *fsck* command restores a corrupted file system

to a usable state and saves as much file data as possible. In a video server, with large blocks and relatively few files, the time required to execute off-line *fsck* is acceptable even for large file systems.

Tiger Shark employs the real-time features of the AIX kernel to enable it to implement isochronous access to multimedia data. When used in a video server, all Tiger Shark code and data buffers are fixed (*pinned*) in memory, in order to prevent page faults from interfering with isochronous performance. Furthermore, the Tiger Shark daemon runs at high priority. This prevents other processes (including the AIX process scheduler) from interfering with Tiger Shark and disables time slicing for the daemon. Finally, the AIX real-time clock is used to implement deadline scheduling.

Background activities such as content loading require Tiger Shark to perform non-isochronous I/O to the file system while isochronous streams are being played and recorded. Tiger Shark allows all disk-system bandwidth not consumed by isochronous streams to be used for non-isochronous time I/O according to the following algorithm. During file-system operation, Tiger Shark keeps track of the fraction σ of this bandwidth actually used by currently playing streams. After executing a non-isochronous I/O operation taking time t , Tiger Shark waits for time $t(1 - \sigma)/\sigma$ before starting the next non-isochronous I/O. This heuristic is similar to that described in [12].

Tiger Shark uses an EDF (earliest deadline first [13]) policy to schedule isochronous I/O. The deadline (completion time) of the i th block in a stream is that of the $i - 1$ st block plus the $i - 1$ st block's playback time (block size/data rate). Isochronous I/O to each disk is executed in EDF order. In single-node configurations, Tiger Shark calls the AIX disk device driver to perform I/O operations. To restrain disk drivers, adapters, and devices from reordering I/O to optimize throughput, Tiger Shark limits the number of I/O operations on each disk at any time to at most two, one executing and the other queued. When the executing operation completes and the queued operation begins executing, Tiger Shark queues the subsequent operation to the disk.

As was mentioned above, Tiger Shark uses Virtual Shared Disk (VSD) to perform I/O to shared disks on storage nodes. VSD was modified to allow a deadline to be specified for each disk-I/O request. Tiger Shark computes the deadline for each isochronous I/O request, and VSD executes requests to each disk in global deadline order, as described below. VSD was also modified to prevent AIX and the hardware from reordering I/O operations, as described above.

Global deadline scheduling requires file-system-node clocks to be synchronized within approximately the duration of an I/O operation. Tiger Shark generates deadlines with the use of the SP2 switch clock, which is

synchronized on all nodes to within a microsecond. Since the duration of a 256KB disk-I/O operation is approximately 50 ms, if the switch clock were not available, each node's time-of-day clock could be used in conjunction with a standard clock-synchronization algorithm [14, 15] to generate sufficiently precise deadlines.

The Tiger Shark kernel extension implements a function (*tsfattr*) that allows application programs to control the isochronous reading and writing of an open file. Programs call *tsfattr* to reserve bandwidth for reading or writing the file, specify the read/write data rate, and set the prefetch depth (the number of read-ahead buffers).

The kernel extension also implements a *zero-copy* interface that allows stream drivers to directly access the pinned Tiger Shark data buffers. The standard UNIX read and write functions copy data between file-system buffers and program buffers. This adds substantially to the CPU overhead required to stream video from the server.

The zero-copy functions, called from AIX kernel code (including interrupt handlers), allow the inner loop of a stream driver to be implemented very efficiently. Because the zero-copy functions *must* be called from the kernel, file-system data buffers are protected against access by unprivileged programs. The zero-copy functions include *prefetch*, which starts real-time prefetching of data blocks, *getbuf*, which locks a prefetched buffer so that its data can be accessed, and *putbuf*, which returns a locked buffer to Tiger Shark after its data has been consumed. A simple zero-copy stream driver opens the file and calls *tsfattr* to reserve bandwidth and set the data rate and prefetch depth. It next calls *prefetch* to read the number of prefetch buffers specified by *tsfattr*, calls *getbuf* to lock the buffer containing the first data block, and starts sending data to the output device (e.g., an ATM adapter). Each time the device interrupts subsequently, the interrupt handler checks whether the data buffer is empty. If so, it calls *putbuf* to return the empty buffer to Tiger Shark and calls *getbuf* in nonblocking mode to lock the next prefetched buffer. Normally (i.e., if deadlines are met), this buffer will have been read and *getbuf* will return successfully with the lock. If by some chance the buffer has not yet been read, *getbuf* returns an error to the interrupt handler. In this case, the interrupt handler signals a recovery process in the stream driver (e.g., via an event), which in turn calls *getbuf* in blocking mode to wait for the data, after which the interrupt handler resumes sending data to the device. The use of nonblocking *getbuf* and the recovery process bounds the interrupt latency (as required by AIX). Zero copy not only avoids copying the data; it also avoids the process switch into the stream driver and the pin/unpin of the device output buffer. Depending on the output device, zero copy can save up to 40% of the instructions.

The standard AIX NFS** (Network File System) daemon can use Tiger Shark to allow NFS clients to play audio and video over a LAN. Because it was considered impractical to modify NFS, Tiger Shark was modified slightly to provide continuous-time playback through NFS. Tiger Shark provides a command to permanently assign a default playback rate to a file. This rate can be directly specified by a user or can be generated by an analysis tool that examines the video/audio content of the file to determine its playback rate. When an NFS client reads a file sequentially and the file has a default playback rate, Tiger Shark assumes that the client is performing isochronous playback. It then reserves bandwidth for the client and uses deadline scheduling to read the file at the default rate.

Experience and applications

• Video on demand and interactive television

Tiger Shark has been used in a number of VOD and ITV trials. The first was the Bell Atlantic Field Trial [16, 17], one of the earliest video-on-demand trials, which took place from April 1993 through September 1994. This trial used Shark [18], a predecessor of Tiger Shark, to provide 50 simultaneous video streams from a single RS/6000 Model 970 computer. Video was sent over standard telephone lines at 1.544 Mb/s (T1 rate) to the customer's set-top decoder. Customers ordered movies over the telephone via an automated menu system, which sent requests to play movies to the video server.

A later trial at Hong Kong Telecom [19, 20], which provided 150 simultaneous 1.5Mb/s streams, ran Tiger Shark successfully from March through September 1995. The server throughput was too low to justify the use of an SP2, so the server consisted of two independent RS/6000 Model 980 processors, each with its own IBM 7135 RAIDiant disk subsystems. A single-node version of Tiger Shark was used on each RS/6000 to provide real-time access to its local data. Video content was replicated on each server. As in the Bell Atlantic trial, video was sent over telephone lines at 1.544 Mb/s. However, the Hong Kong Telecom trial was truly interactive. The set-top decoder contained an X.25 data port for exchanging control commands with the server. The user interface included menus with "image overlays" and video "fly-ins." Other interactive features, such as direct seek to a position in the video, were also provided. Tiger Shark itself was able to start streams in less than a second in this system, although other delays in the set-top box, X.25, and application program contributed to a response time as seen by the user of more than a second. In the initial architecture for the Hong Kong Telecom server, the disk storage on each RS/6000 was divided between permanent file-storage space and a temporary file cache. Each video file had a permanent

home on one of the RS/6000s; when the file was needed on the other RS/6000, it was copied over an FDDI ring to that machine's cache. In practice, the CPU overhead of copying files over the FDDI ring was so high that even a small number of cache misses overloaded the server. It was eventually decided to store the entire 200 hours of video content on each RS/6000.

The Tokyo Metropolitan Government (TMG) ITV trial [21], which began in May 1996, is the first to use Tiger Shark running in a shared-disk configuration on an SP2. This server stores 200 hours of 6Mb/s video and supports 100 streams, with video delivery via hybrid fiber/coax (HFC). The SP2 is configured with five storage nodes and seven file-system nodes. Each storage node controls 32 4.5GB IBM 7133 (Serial Storage Adapter) disks, a total of 720 GB of video data. Each file-system node contains four MPEG-2 multiplexor cards, each of which combines four 6Mb/s MPEG-2 streams into a single 20Mb/s MPEG transport stream. The transport stream is modulated onto an analog TV channel and distributed via HFC. The number of nodes was determined by the number of Micro Channel* slots required for disk adapters and MPEG multiplexors. The 720 GB of disk storage is more than adequate to store 200 hours of 6Mb/s video but not adequate to fully replicate it. To provide some measure of protection against disk failures, 67 hours of the most popular video is replicated (two copies) on one 80-disk stripe group (half the disks). The remaining video is stored on a number of smaller, unreplicated stripe groups. If a disk failure occurs in an unreplicated stripe group, all files in it must be reloaded from tape. The size of the smaller stripe groups is chosen to be large enough to provide sufficient throughput to handle its expected content while being small enough to be reloaded in an acceptable period. The decision to use unreplicated data was dictated by cost constraints.

Argonne Laboratories, one of the U.S. national supercomputing centers, collaborated with IBM to develop an experimental WAN-based video server that employs Tiger Shark on a 28-node SP2. This system uses an implementation of RTP (Real-Time Protocol) [23] to transmit video over the Mbone (multicast backbone) network interconnecting the supercomputing centers. The system was demonstrated at the Supercomputing '95 conference in San Diego (December 3-6, 1995), with video sent to an IBM location in New York.

• *IBM products using Tiger Shark*

Positive results from the aforementioned customer trials have led to Tiger Shark being included in three IBM video-server products. At present, these products use Tiger Shark in single-node configurations to provide real-time delivery, wide striping, and high throughput. The fact that these products are not yet offered on the SP2

computer reflects the current demands of the marketplace. As customer needs grow to require an SP2, the technology is available to quickly fill this demand.

IBM Multimedia Server for AIX uses Tiger Shark to stream video to personal computers and workstations over video-capable LANs (e.g., ATM, switched Ethernet, or FDDI) using the standard NFS protocol. Multimedia Server supports up to 75 Mb/s (60 streams) from a single RS/6000 server. Tiger Shark uses the streaming heuristic described in the previous section to support real-time playback through the stateless NFS protocol. The LAN used to transport video must have sufficiently high throughput, low latency, and low error rate to transport video smoothly. Although conventional LANs have no means to reserve bandwidth or schedule delivery, new LAN technologies such as ATM and switched Ethernet have sufficient bandwidth to transport video acceptably to a reasonably large number of clients. In practice, more video "jitter" results from background activity of the client operating system (e.g., paging) than from network delay or errors.

IBM Videocharger Server provides video playback to Internet clients through a Web browser. It supports low-bit-rate (28.8Kb/s) video over WANs and high-bit-rate (e.g., MPEG) video over campus or corporate intranets. It uses Tiger Shark to store and play back video and uses the RTP protocol to transmit video over the network. For low-bit-rate video, a file block size of 32 KB is used, since devoting 256KB buffers to each low-speed stream wastes RAM.

IBM Media Streamer supports video capture and playback from locally attached video boards (SCSI-attached MPEG to analog video decoders) and over reserved-bandwidth ATM connections. It can be used in small to mid-sized video-on-demand applications (hotels, cable TV systems, digital video broadcast, etc.). It can also replace digital or analog videotape recorders in applications such as ad insertion at a broadcast station, video editing, etc. Media Streamer provides up to 120 Mb/s on an RS/6000 server.

Discussion

• *Scalability*

The Tiger Shark system used in the TMG trial has been tested with 112 6Mb/s streams, limited by the number of available MPEG multiplexor adapters. This size is modest in comparison to that anticipated for a large ITV system. However, even the TMG server represents several hundred thousands of dollars of hardware, which

Table 3 Effect of grouping on performance for IBM Ultrastar* 2ES SCSI-2 disk drive (4.5GB capacity, 5600 rpm, 56 KB/track avg., seek times 1.1 ms min., 8.5 ms avg., 15 ms max.).

<i>Streams/group</i>	<i>Throughput (MB/s)</i>	<i>Latency (ms)</i>
1	4.03	62.08
2	4.20	119.16
4	4.34	230.32
8	4.44	449.97
16	4.51	887.39

illustrates why scalability must be determined by modeling rather than empirically.

Extensive modeling results of the Tiger Shark architecture are presented in [24]. This study modeled the performance of a server with up to 500 4Mb/s streams. It studied the effects of a number of configuration parameters, including switch bandwidth, disk block size, read-ahead buffer size, I/O-scheduling policy, and number of nodes. To summarize the pertinent results of this modeling as they apply to Tiger Shark:

The model was used to predict the probability of stream starvation due to variations in queuing delay at the switch ports. The model indicated that the stream capacity of the server remains proportional to the number of file-system nodes (until the number of ports supported by the switch is reached). The highest switch-port bandwidth modeled in [24] was 60 MB/s, at which the stream-starvation rate was 0.02/hr/stream for the "two-tier" architecture used in the TMG trial (separate file-system and storage nodes). The SP2 used in the TMG trial differs from the model in that it has a switch-port bandwidth of 80 MB/s (as opposed to 60 MB/s in the model) and ran at a CPU utilization of 37% (70% in the model). Both of these differences would indicate that the stream-starvation rate in the actual Tiger Shark system would be lower than the 0.02/hr/stream rate of the model. The model assumed a nonblocking switch (e.g., crossbar), whereas the SP2 switch can block at high loads. Numerous analyses of switch blockage as a function of load have been published (see, for example, [25]), showing that for a port utilization of less than 50%, the probability of packet loss due to blocking is negligible. In the TMG system, the switch port utilization is 20% in the storage nodes and 15% in the file-system nodes.

The model evaluated optimum block size as a function of disk-bandwidth utilization. The model in [24] indicates that for up to 90% disk-bandwidth utilization, the 256KB block size used in the TMG configuration is within 5% of optimal. The TMG system has 140 disks, each capable of reading 256KB blocks at 6 MB/s. The modeling results indicate that this number of disks could provide 784 6Mb/s streams at 70% bandwidth utilization with a starvation

rate of 0.01/stream/hr. For this result, the model assumed first-come first-served scheduling and random striping of data blocks across disks. The TMG system uses EDF scheduling and round-robin striping, both of which would result in an even lower stream-loss rate than that of the model.

The model also evaluated stream starvation as a function of read-ahead buffer size. In the TMG system, each stream has two full-block read-ahead buffers in Tiger Shark, a buffer in the HFC card device driver, and a buffer on the card itself. The model shows that for 80% disk-bandwidth utilization, the starvation probability for a system with four buffers is negligible (less than 0.1%).

The model shows the possibility of stream starvation for video clips too short to be striped across all of the disks. The model indicates that in order to maintain a constant starvation rate of 0.01/hr/stream when short files are played, the stream capacity for each node must be lowered from 20 4Mb/s streams for a single-node server to 18 streams for a 128-node server. Tiger Shark avoids even this minimal degradation by replicating short files to whatever degree is necessary to distribute their blocks across all disks in the stripe group.

• *Disk scheduling*

The modeling results of [24] indicate that disk-bandwidth utilization over 80% can be achieved with essentially no stream starvation through the use of EDF scheduling. A number of algorithms have been proposed [26–28] that provide higher disk throughput by grouping read requests for a number of streams, and scheduling each group to maximize throughput with a conventional scan algorithm. Modeling results presented in [29] indicate that for the large block sizes used by Tiger Shark (256 KB and up), the throughput increase is negligible. For example, Table 3 shows the effect of grouping for a typical SCSI-2 disk drive. The throughput gain from grouping indicated by the simulation does not warrant the increase in stream-startup latency caused by grouping.

• *Other scalable multimedia file systems*

Although a number of scalable video servers have been developed and commercially deployed, relatively little detailed description of them exists in the technical literature, and little of that discusses the file systems. The closest comparable published work discusses Tiger [30] and XFS** [31].

XFS is a high-performance file system for Silicon Graphics systems. Like Tiger Shark, it provides isochronous delivery ("guaranteed-rate I/O"), wide striping, and a large data-block size. In addition, like Tiger Shark, XFS can replicate data, uses journaling for recovery, allows very large files and file systems, supports sparse files, and has on-line system management. However, there are a number

of major differences between XFS and Tiger Shark. XFS directories use a B-tree rather than extendible hashing. [B-tree lookup performance is $O(\log n)$ in the number of files n , whereas that of extendible hashing is $O(1)$.] XFS replicates data by mirroring logical disks, compared with the Tiger Shark block-level replication. Consequently, when an XFS disk fails, its entire load is taken up by its mirror rather than being spread evenly over the remaining disks, as it is in Tiger Shark. XFS has a "direct I/O" mechanism to read data from disk directly into the user buffer. Like the Tiger Shark zero-copy feature, direct I/O avoids copying data from the file-system buffer pool to user space (by eliminating the file-system buffer rather than by giving the user access to it). However, direct I/O prevents the buffer pool from providing any benefit. This can affect the stream-startup latency for frequently accessed files (e.g., video fly-ins used in top-level menus). Finally, the scalability of XFS is limited by servers on which it currently runs, the largest at present being the Challenge XL shared-memory multiprocessor with 32 processors and 1.2GB/s I/O throughput. The SP2 switch-connected cluster can expand to 512 processors, with an I/O throughput of up to 20 GB/s.

Tiger is a special-purpose file system developed by Microsoft for use in video servers. It consists of a number of nodes (called "Cubs") acting under the direction of a central-controller node. Files are striped across the Cubs, which are analogous to the Tiger Shark storage nodes. The Cubs transport video to set-top boxes via an ATM network. To play a video stream, a "multipoint-to-point" ATM-switched virtual circuit is established between every Cub and the set-top box (presumably, this is done once, when the viewer starts using the server). The stream is assigned a free time slot in a global schedule. Time slots are arranged cyclically, so if block i of a stream comes from disk j during time slot t , block $i + 1$ will come from disk $j + 1$ (modulo the number of disks) in slot $t + 1$. Each block is sent to the set-top box in the time slot following the one during which it was read. If the clocks in the Cubs are synchronized, there are no collisions along the multipoint-to-point connection. The principal advantage of this architecture is that it avoids the expense of having both storage and file-system nodes (and the additional level of switching to connect the two). However, this advantage also limits Tiger's flexibility. The slotted schedule requires all streams to have the same data rate. Tiger Shark, by comparison, can support arbitrary video rates, which can provide significant cost and space savings for content (e.g., news) that does not require the full 6Mb/s data rate used in [30]. The slotted architecture makes it difficult or impossible to expand the Tiger system (i.e., to add Cubs and/or disks) on-line. Because adding disks or Cubs would require all data to be restriped, the amount of downtime required for such reorganization in a

large server could be prohibitive. Finally, VOD and ITV systems, now and for the foreseeable future, will have to support ADSL [32] and HFC for video distribution. Neither ADSL nor HFC supports multipoint-to-point. In order to use Tiger, ADSL or HFC would require front-end nodes to receive ATM packets from the Cubs, combine them into streams, and send them to the ADSL or HFC adapters. The resultant configuration of Cubs, ATM switches, and front-end nodes closely corresponds to the storage nodes, switch, and file-system nodes in Tiger Shark, eliminating the purported cost advantage of the decentralized Cub architecture.

• *Technical and commercial applications*

Tiger Shark's attributes of scalability, high throughput, availability, manageability, and a standard programming interface are important in many technical and commercial applications such as simulation, seismic processing, and data mining. Many such applications require high-speed sequential read and write access to large files, which is precisely what Tiger Shark was designed for. This has resulted in considerable interest in Tiger Shark as a general-purpose parallel file system for use in technical computing and scalable servers.

To date, Tiger Shark has been successfully used in the Scalable Web Server prototype developed at the IBM Thomas J. Watson Research Center [33]. Tiger Shark has also been used in a study with an IBM customer for retrieving seismic data for processing. In this study, Tiger Shark offered a $15\times$ speedup over NFS and a $5\times$ speedup over the existing PIOFS parallel file system for SP2 [34], which is designed for this type of parallel technical computing.

Tiger Shark is currently being developed as a product for the SP2. As part of this product development effort, several extensions to Tiger Shark are under way to allow it to better support general-purpose parallel computing. Two of the most important of these are dynamic prefetch and fine-grained write sharing. Dynamic prefetch senses when an application program is trying to read a file at a high rate and automatically increases the number of prefetch buffers in order to maximize I/O parallelism. Fine-grained write sharing extends the token manager and local lock manager to allow multiple nodes to work on nonintersecting portions of a file with minimal global locking traffic. This permits a large simulation, for example, to involve many nodes simultaneously making updates to small pieces of a file on which they are all working.

Summary

Multimedia applications place demands on a file system beyond the ability to support isochronous access. Tiger Shark not only supports isochronous access, but also provides a

scalable, robust, and manageable system adequate for large ITV systems. Tiger Shark has proven itself in a number of real-world customer trials, which have been sufficiently successful to justify its being used in three IBM video-server products. At present, development is under way for a general-purpose parallel-computing file system based on Tiger Shark. The early customer feedback on this product is promising.

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